

[PRICE FOURPENCE.]

D. APPRENTICES to the Millinery. Mr
ELL, 693, Brickfield-hill.

D. BOARD and RESIDENCE for a Gentleman
within a circuit of half-a-mile from the Po-
wers, stating full particulars, A. T., care of
57, George-street, Sydney.

SUPPLIES ECONOMIQUES.

(SOPHISMES EN POLITIQUE ECONOMIQUE.)
By FREDERICK BASTIAT, Member of the Institute of France.

(Translated for the Sydney Morning Herald.)

CHAPTER IX.

AN IMMENSE DISCOVERY.

At the moment when all minds are occupied in search of economy, as to the means of transport; at the moment when, in order to realise this economy, they are levelling the routes and deepening the rivers, perfecting steam vessels, and bringing to Paris all our frontiers by a network of iron—by systems of atmospheric traction, hydraulic, pneumatic, and electric; finally, when I ought to believe that every body seeks with ardour and sincerity the solution of this problem.

How to make the price of things in the place of consumption to approach as closely as possible to their price at the place of production.

I believe I should be culpable towards my country, towards my age, and towards myself, if I kept secret the marvellous discovery I have made. The illusions of the inventor are too prevalent. But I have the certainty of having discovered an infallible means for the production of the entire world to arrive in France, and with a considerable reduction of the price.

Infallible! And that is but one of the advantages of my astonishing invention.

It will require neither plans, nor contrivances, nor preparatory studies, nor engineers, nor mechanics, nor contractors, nor shareholders, nor succours from Government.

It will present no danger of shipwreck, explosions, shocks or burning, or derangement. It might be put into practice to-day or to-morrow.

In me, this will be without doubt to the public it will not burden the budget one cent.

Quite the contrary. It will not augment the number of functionaries or the exigencies of bureaucracy. Quite the contrary. It will diminish the number of them.

It is not by hazard that the discovery has come into my possession. It is by observation. I thought to say here how I have been conducted to it. We have then this question to solve.

Why, for example, an article made at Brussels costs more when it arrives at France?

I have not been able to perceive that, between Brussels and Paris, there exist obstacles of all sorts.

It is not to be overcome without labour, and without loss of time, and it is necessary that the dealer should submit to it himself, or pay for it to another. He has to overcome rivers, marshes, and to encounter accidents of fire and flood, so many difficulties to surmount.

It is necessary to pay for the construction of roads, the building of bridges, and opening of routes—diminishing their resistance by tariffs or by tolls of iron, &c.

All this is costly, and it is necessary that each article transferred should support part of the expense.

And then there are thieves on the route, which require a price to be paid for their safety.

But amidst these obstacles there is one which we have made ourselves, and at great expense, between Brussels and Paris: this is the men embossed on the frontier, armed to the teeth, and charged with the duty of stopping the transfer of merchandise from one country to another.

These are called custom-house officers. They act exactly in the same way as mud on the wheels of a carriage.

To that difference which we have remarked between the price of production and the price of consumption, which our problem is to reduce as much as possible, should the problem reduce: diminish the tariff: You will have made a railroad to the north without having cost you anything. Far from this you will pay great expenses, and you will commence, from the first day, to put capital in your pocket. Truly, I ask myself, how could the tariff be reduced?

It is not by diminishing the tariff, but by entering into my head, as to determine to pay many millions to destroy natural obstacles which intervene between France and the foreigner, and at the same time to pay many millions to substitute artificial obstacles which have the same value as the natural ones, and the obstacles destroyed neutralise each other. The things remain as before, and the result of the alteration is a double expense. Belgium produces valued at Brussels is 20 francs, at Paris it is 30 francs, on account of the expense of transport. The produce of a similar branch of Belgian industry is valued at 40 francs. First, then, we put a tax of not less than 10 francs on the Belgian produce in order to raise the price at Paris to 40 francs, and we pay a number of people to watch that it may not escape from this tax. Thus the transit is charged with 10 francs for the conveyance, and 10 francs for the tax.

This done we reason thus: The carriage from Brussels to Paris which costs 10 francs, is very dear. Let us spend two or three hundred millions in railroads, and we shall reduce it to one-half. All that we shall have obtained is the Belgian produce at the same price at Paris as before, namely, 30 francs, its price at Brussels 10 francs; for the reduced cost of the carriage by railway—making a total of 35 francs, the selling price at Paris. And should we not have obtained the same result by lowering the tariff? The carriage from Brussels to Paris, its price at Brussels, 10 francs, reduced tax, 10 francs, carriage by ordinary routes—making a total of 30 francs, or the selling price at Paris. But this process would spare us 100,000 francs, just the cost of the railroads, which would diminish in the same degree that the encouragement of contraband has diminished.

But they say the tax is necessary for the protection of the country. We will be it so. But do not destroy the effect by your railroads; because if you persist in determining that Belgian produce like that of Paris, shall cost 40 francs, the carriage from Brussels to Paris, put on a tax of 15 francs—namely 20 francs, the price at Brussels; 15 francs protection duty, and 5 francs carriage by the railroad. That is 40 francs, in all to equalise the price. But if you say, what under this aspect, is the utility of the railroad?

Truly, it is not something humiliating for the nineteenth century to present to future ages the spectacle of such puerilities—practices which such imperturbable reasoners as the economists of the nineteenth century have been so anxious to employ a vast representative apparatus to dupe itself and to dupe itself doubly and in a matter of figures is certainly calculated to abate a little the pride of this enlightened age.

CHAPTER X.

RECAPITULATION.

We have shown that whatever renders transport expensive acts as a "protection," or, if we prefer this mode of putting it—the tariff is a protection, and it is the same as whatever makes carriage difficult.

It is then correct to say that a tariff is like a chain or a morass, or a steep road, that in one word it is an obstacle, which hinders the free passage of goods, and the difference of the price to the consumer, as compared with the cost of production. It is at the same time incontestable that a morass or a chain are true protective tariffs.

There are people—a small number, it is true—who begin to comprehend that obstacles are not less obstacles because they are artificial, and that our well-being will gain more from liberty than from protection, precisely in the same manner as the canal is more useful than a sandy, precipitate, and uneven road.

But they say it is necessary that this liberty should be reciprocal—that if we beat down our barriers before Spain remove her obstacles, we are evidently dupes. Let us make our treaties of commerce (they add) on the basis of a true reciprocity, conceding that which Spain concedes to us; let us make the sacrifice of buying, in order to have the advantage of selling.

The people who reason so, I am sorry to say, are—whether they know it or not—advocates of a system of protection; only that they are more inconsistent than the pure protectionists, as they are more inconsistent than the absolute prohibitionists. I will demonstrate it by an epilogue.

There are, it does not signify where, two cities: Footstown and Boyville. They are situated at great expense a road which should unite one to the other. When this was done the inhabitants of Footstown said:—See, we shall be inundated by the productions of Boyville. It is necessary to add a tariff. The result was, they created and paid a corps of "obstructors"—so named because it was their mission to put obstacles in the way of the convoys which arrived from Boyville. Soon afterwards Boyville had also created a corps of obstructors.

Several ages after, light having made great progress, the capacity of the inhabitants of Boyville raised itself so far as to discover that "reciprocal obstacles" were nothing but a waste of money, and they sent a diplomatist to Footstown to the inhabitants of which place (save in official phraseology) he spoke in this manner:

"We have made a road and now we embarrass that road. It is absurd. It would have been better to have left things in their first condition. We should not have paid first for the opening of the route and then for obstructing it. In the name of Boyville, I came to propose to you not altogether to destroy the mutual obstacles which we oppose to each other—that would be to act upon principle, and we despise principles as to act upon duty—but to lessen them a little, having care to weigh equitably in this respect our mutual sacrifices."

So spoke the diplomatist; Footstown demanded time for reflection. The inhabitants of Boyville held a council. An old man, always suspected to have been secretly bought by Footstown, raised his voice and said: "The obstacles created by Footstown injure our commerce. Those which we have created injure our purchases; that is another misfortune. We cannot do anything with the first; but the second depends upon ourelves. Let us deliver ourselves at least from one, and afterwards we shall perhaps be able to get rid of the other. Let us suppress our 'obstructors' without requiring that Footstown shall do the same. One day, without doubt, they will learn to keep their accounts better."

A second councillor, a man of practice and of facts, exempt from principles, and nourished in the old experience of his ancestors, replied: "Do not listen to this dreamer! This theoretician, this utopianist, this economist, this victim of the hindrances on the road are not equalised—the equilibrium measured and weighed between Footstown and Boyville. There will be more difficulty to go to come to, to export than to import. We shall retain, Footstown being in the position of inferiority of the towns of Havre, Bordeaux, Lisbon, London, Hamburg, and so on. Orleans, Lyons, and the cities of the north, the source of the Seine, the Elbe, and the Mississippi, because they have more difficulties to ascend the river than to descend. A voice from the cities at the mouth of rivers have prospered more than those at the head of them. It is not possible. [The same voice:] But it is so! Well, then, they prosper contrary to the rules. This reasoning, so conclusive, satisfied the assembly. By speaking of national independence, of national honour, of national dignity, of national labour—the inundation of produce, and of destruction; in short, he was successful in maintaining the obstructions, and if you are curious I shall be able to take you to certain countries where you will see with your own eyes the road-makers and the 'obstructors' labouring with the most perfect cordiality under the shadow of the same flag, and the same flag of the same tax-payers—the one being employed to make the road, and the other to block it up."

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THE RETURNING-OFFICER, in opening the proceedings, congratulated his brother electors on the occasion of their meeting, and pointed out the privileges they enjoyed under the new Municipal Act, and the duties incumbent upon them as possessors of the franchise. He was not aware that there was any opposition candidate to Mr. Hay; but, in case of opposition, he trusted they would not be slow to have prepared to meet him. He was not aware that there was any opposition candidate to Mr. Hay; but, in case of opposition, he trusted they would not be slow to have prepared to meet him.

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SHIPPING.

ARRIVALS.—July 7.

Brilliant, schooner, 111 tons, Captain Perkins, returned to port, Captain, agent.

DEPARTURES.—July 7.

Marion, for Nelson, Captain, agent.

PROJECTED DEPARTURES.

For the coast of Africa, Captain, agent.

CLEARANCES.—July 7.

John Brown, schooner, 40 tons, Captain Henry, for London.

COASTERS INWARDS.—July 7.

John Brown, schooner, 40 tons, Captain Henry, for London.

COASTERS OUTWARDS.—July 7.

John Brown, schooner, 40 tons, Captain Henry, for London.

SHIPS' MAILS.

Mails will close at the General Post Office on Friday, July 8, at 10 a.m.

NOTICE.

Registered and other letters will be delivered on Friday, July 8, at 10 a.m.

NEWCASTLE.

July 6.—Schooner, 24 tons, Captain, for Wellington, New Zealand.

DEPARTURES.

July 6.—Schooner, 24 tons, Captain, for Wellington, New Zealand.

ARRIVALS.

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THE SYDNEY MORNING HERALD, FRIDAY, JULY 8, 1859.

DIARY.

REMARKS TO THE BEST PERSPECTIVE.

July 7. Fine. 7. 10. 12. 14. 16. 18. 20. 22. 24. 26. 28. 30. 32. 34. 36. 38. 40. 42. 44. 46. 48. 50. 52. 54. 56. 58. 60. 62. 64. 66. 68. 70. 72. 74. 76. 78. 80. 82. 84. 86. 88. 90. 92. 94. 96. 98. 100.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

Whatsoever is intended for insertion must be authenticated by the name and address of the writer, not necessarily for publication, but as a guarantee of his good faith.

We cannot undertake to return rejected communications.

The Sydney Morning Herald.

FRIDAY, JULY 8, 1859.

The information in the telegram in another column, contains more and clearer information than we have hitherto received. It is a succinct history of the war, so far as it has gone. It may be worth while to mark the dates, to note the course of the events, and their rapid influence on the views and fears of the nations.

In the speech of Mr. Disraeli, of the 18th of April, the sombre aspect of affairs was relieved only by ministerial hope. A Congress was proposed to be held in Paris; in this Congress all the first-rate nations had assented to take part. A difficulty, since repeated, then arose. Austria demanded that Sardinia should disarm, and confide her cause to her friends. Sardinia on the other hand claimed a seat in the Congress, in virtue of her services in the Crimea, and of her liberal Italy and in right of her pluck. Austria declined definitely meeting the Congress, and her answer reached London on the 21st of April. She resolved to address herself directly to Sardinia. She required the disbanding of the Sardinian army, and the dismissal of those volunteers who were sent to the aid of the Piedmontese Government. According to our late news, arrived at Turin one day, meantime Austria moved her troops on the Ticino and the Lake Maggiore which separate her dominions from the Sardinian territory. This led to remonstrances on the part of England, and new propositions to the Court of Vienna; these were met with a renewal of demands which were formerly discussed and rejected. The Austrian envoy was dismissed from Turin on the 26th, and the Austrian army advanced within 120 miles of that capital.

The Austrian scene, however, soon to have been met with alarms and obstacles. The French troops landed at Genoa, pushed their advanced parties to Turin, by which the Sardinian monarchy was probably saved from a great calamity. The basin of the Po was visited with those periodical floods, which prevent its use for anything but pasture. The Austrians attempted to cross this, the noblest of Italian rivers, without success.

The conflict is now between equal powers. France may be expected to cope with Austria, and Sardinia is herself able to muster, when on a war footing, an army not far short of 150,000 men.

The obvious policy of Austria was to occupy Sardinia, and make that country the seat of war. She might, had she been in time, have struck its Government with paralysis, and deprived the French of any effective help from the troops of Victor Emmanuel.

This would have been done by a general like NAPOLEON THE GREAT, who made hours count for battalions, and who was wont to announce himself at the head of his armies. But Austria never could move out of step. Thus she lost Italy in 1800; and would have lost Hungary more recently but for the force of the colossal Empire of Russia, thrown between her and her insurgent subjects. By glancing at a map, the position of the armies may be seen more easily than they can be described by the pen.

Next in importance to the war itself are the opinions of the nations, who participate in, or watch it. The map of Europe will require re-adjustment, and whatever may be the events of the war, there can be little doubt that Austria will recede before the military and revolutionary fervour which have vowed the extinction of her authority. There can be henceforth no delusion practised. A naked despotism has been asserted by Austria as necessary to her own safety, and not less distinctly the policy of keeping as far as possible the various States of the Italian Peninsula. The influence of Austria in Italy results from no geographical necessity, or affinity of race, habits, and language. It is an anomaly, and an insult.

The appearance of NAPOLEON III., bearing a national flag, will naturally create the deepest enthusiasm. It is only a few years ago that tremendous efforts were made to shake off the Austrian yoke. Austria was worsted, driven back, humiliated; but small, divided, republics cannot stand against a great power and a gigantic army. RADETSKY returned in his might; the revolutionary Governments, after a few courageous but unavailing efforts, disappeared, and the restoration of the Austrian authority illustrated a grand fact; that a people, however numerous, courageous, enthusiastic, must succumb before a military force determined to fight. It is the latest sympathy of the soldier towards his countrymen that enfeebles his arm, and is dangerous to the power which demands his obedience; and there are no sympathies between the Austrian soldier and the Italian patriot.

The appearance of the French army in Italy under NAPOLEON will be welcomed if his policy should give hope to the Italian people. The head of the Government, established at Paris, may, perhaps, inspire but little confidence, but the independence of Italy might, in itself, be worth having; to attain a national existence might deserve a struggle, even though years, and even ages, might elapse before there could be connected with it a well-regulated system of civil government, and secure personal and political liberty.

The next month must be one of deep anxiety and solemn expectation. War has already exacted its victims; and when such a storm is in the field, with the resources of modern warfare, and a faint glimpse of the ravages of the sword. Yet while the field of battle is likely to exhibit increasing carnage, beyond its margin many of the features of war will be softened. There will be more ample means to move the sick, and to transport them to places of safety; there will be less pillage and wanton cruelty to the unoffending inhabitants; more respect will be paid to private property, and the belligerents will reserve the thunders of war for the fortress or the field. It is not improbable that a few tremendous battles will settle the question of domination, and that in a few months things may return to their usual channels. We imagine that it would be impossible to carry on war for years together as they were accustomed to do, when a few thousand men sought glory in strategy, rather than in fighting.

SYDNEY HEADS.

July 7. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 17. 18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 23. 24. 25. 26. 27. 28. 29. 30. 31. 32. 33. 34. 35. 36. 37. 38. 39. 40. 41. 42. 43. 44. 45. 46. 47. 48. 49. 50. 51. 52. 53. 54. 55. 56. 57. 58. 59. 60. 61. 62. 63. 64. 65. 66. 67. 68. 69. 70. 71. 72. 73. 74. 75. 76. 77. 78. 79. 80. 81. 82. 83. 84. 85. 86. 87. 88. 89. 90. 91. 92. 93. 94. 95. 96. 97. 98. 99. 100.

GOLD IN TASMANIA.—The Hobart Town Mercury of 27th instant, alluding to the progress of matters at Fingal says:—The quartz-crushing machine has only been in use during the past week for four days and three-quarters, during which time thirty-one ounces and three-quarters of gold have been obtained. The company has finally closed with Mr. Russell, of Sydney, and paid him a deposit of £1000, for the use of the machine. The Fingal Company, which is the joint property of Mr. Russell and Mr. P. N. Russell and Co., has gained such celebrity. The Launceston Examiner further states that a contract has been entered into by Mr. Russell to construct two quartz-crushing machines with three engines for the Fingal Company, at a cost of £6000; and another company is in treaty with the same engineer to supply them with crushing machines and motive-power.

[BY ELECTRIC TELEGRAPH.]

THE NEWS BY SALSETTE.

CONTINUED.

SUMMARY FROM THE HOME NEWS.

MAY 18th.

(FROM OUR CORRESPONDENT.)

The crisis to which we have been looking forward through a thousand fluctuations for the last two or three months has come at last.

On Monday, April 18th, the date of our last number, Ministers entered into a statement, in both Houses, of the negotiations which had taken place, with a view to a pacific settlement, up to that time. The facts were already known in detail, and the chief point of interest in the Ministerial explanations was the declaration of that policy of neutrality which it is the desire and interest of this country to maintain.

The next step in the history of these events was the publication of proposals made to the Four Powers by England, in which France, Russia, and Prussia had already acquiesced. All that was wanted was the answer of Austria. This did not come till the evening of April the 21st, and when it did come it extinguished the last gleam of hope. Austria not only declined the proposed arrangement, but resolved upon opening a direct communication with Piedmont for the undisputed purpose of dictating her own terms. General Goyard was ordered to present an ultimatum—immediate disarmament and the disbanding of the Sardinian army. Three days' grace were allowed for the final determination of the Piedmontese Government. A refusal or an evasive reply to be considered equivalent to a declaration of war. Simultaneously with these demands Austria continued to move her troops upon the frontier, and the usual trains of Lombardo-Venetian Railway were suspended on the 22nd, to admit of a more rapid transmission of soldiers to the Ticino.

As soon as this intelligence reached London a Cabinet Council was called together. Another Cabinet Council, at which Prince Jerome and Prince Napoleon were present, was held at the same time in Paris. The French Government immediately put their troops into motion, and the English Ministers protested against the conduct of Austria, and on the 25th despatched a second proposition to Vienna.

Thick and fast from the Continent for seven days came telegrams laden with momentous intelligence, sometimes positive, sometimes conjectural, and sometimes contradictory. Seldom has so much important news crowded upon us so rapidly or in such confusion. Nobody who carefully peruses the startling particulars would be at a loss to understand the agitation that convulsed the Stock Exchange, and in three days produced forty-seven failures.

At last, after an interval of suspension, we learn the fate of our second proposition. Austria consented to it, but France required as a condition that Piedmont be admitted to the Congress, the negotiation came to nothing. Contemporaneously with the receipt of this proposition the French Government applied to the Chambers for powers to augment the army and to raise a loan of twenty million pounds, at the same time hurrying forward with all practicable speed large masses of troops to Italy, while Austria on the other hand advanced her forces along the bank of the Ticino. Now was the harvest time of flying reports from Prussia, Austria, Switzerland, Piedmont, and France. On the 26th April Count Cavot dismissed the Austrian envoy with the answer of Sardinia, rejecting the demand of Austria.

In the midst of these incidents arrived the most astounding piece of news of all—that France and Russia had entered into an alliance offensive and defensive. This statement was corroborated in several quarters, and the Times published the substance of treaties which it asserted had been signed by the two powers on Good Friday. An agitation, little short of a panic, seized upon the money market, and it was not until a subsequent telegram assured the world that it was not an alliance, but a simple convention which had been entered into that anything like confidence was restored. The Russian Government has since officially denied the existence, even of an understanding with France, that could disturb the peace of Europe.

Returning to the scene of hostilities, we come to the first incident upon which all the telegrams from all quarters were agreed, and which place beyond controversy the fact, that war had actually commenced. Immediately upon receiving the answer of Sardinia, the Austrian troops collected along the eastern banks of the Ticino, in great force, and on the 30th of April crossed simultaneously at various points, the most northerly being Intra, above Palanica, on the shore of Lago Maggiore, and the most southerly Placenza, in the duchy of Parma—pushing on, also, from Novara, which lies as nearly as possible midway between the extreme points, and is connected with Turin by a railroad. They advanced on the same day towards Verceil, which is within a day's march of the capital. The whole line of country between the operations is about one hundred and twenty miles in extent, and may be said to form two sides of an irregular triangle, with the river running at its base.

The interest felt by Italy in this struggle was instantly shown in the sympathy expressed everywhere in favour of Sardinia, and the hatred evinced against Austria. Insurrections broke out simultaneously in Sicily and everywhere. The Grand Duke of Tuscany was compelled to abandon his dominions, and Provisional Governments were established at Florence, Massa, and Carrara.

Formal declarations of war were now issued by France and Austria. After the peace had been broken by both, diplomatic relations formally ceased, and the Courts of Paris and Vienna mutually withdrew their representatives.

The manifestoes of the two emperors indicate with sufficient clearness, the ground taken up; that of Louis Napoleon, however, being apparently very much more frank, and so far as professions go, much more satisfactory than that of Francis Joseph. The French manifesto sets forth that Austria has forced things to this extremity, that either her dominion must be extended to the Alps, or Italy must be freed to the Adriatic. This passage is distinct enough, and may be considered tantamount to a declaration that the object of war is to wrest Lombardy and Venice from Austria. By no less decisive result can Italy be made free from the Alps to the Adriatic. Upon the French hand, the French Emperor disclaims for France any idea of conquest or aggression against neutral states, or any disturbance of the existing *status quo*, beyond that of the liberation of Italy.

The Austrian proclamation, subsequently expanded into an elaborate circular by Count Buol's Circular. It is that Austria stands on the treaties of Vienna, and that her policy is emphatically conservative, while she denounces that of Sardinia as being revolutionary. We cannot see how the war is to end otherwise than in a reparation of the Italian States, if the declarations are to be honestly acted upon. Italy, now awakened to a sense of regaining her liberty, is not likely to be so easily lulled to rest until her independence shall have been restored—an issue which the army of Austria, powerful though it be, is hardly able to avert against the united forces of France and Italy, with Russia hovering on the confines of Germany.

The part which Russia means to play in this drama is not yet quite obvious. She, too, has issued her manifesto, in which she positively denies that she has entered into any treaty offensive and defensive, with France (a denial which our Ministers have been making the most of at the elections), claiming at the same time a right to retain and exercise perfect liberty of action, with a view to the maintenance of Imperial dignity and the national interests. These phrases are not very loud, nor have they inspired much confidence in any quarter. It may be strictly true that Russia has formally entered into a defensive or offensive alliance with France. Yet for all that, she may be prepared when the opportunity arises, to adopt such a line of action as the significant language of the Dresden journal, as shall prevent Austria from coming victorious out of the present conflict. At what time or under what conditions she may take an active part in the war cannot be predicated from present circumstances, but that she will enter upon the stage at some juncture when her appearance will be likely to decide the fate of the House of Hapsburg, so far as Italy is concerned, hardly admits, we think, of any reasonable doubt.

The movement in the Italian States goes on with unabated eagerness and enthusiasm. Volunteer Regiments are in course of organisation over the whole peninsula, and everything is preparing for an outbreak when the fitting moment arrives. There has been a military reaction in favour of the Court in Parma, and the Duchess has returned; but it may be taken for granted that she will find it necessary to espouse the popular cause. The Tuscan revolution is complete, and the Duke is already huddled in Vienna. Austria is well aware of her danger; Trieste, Venice, and Verona have been declared in a state of siege, and the people of Milan have been called upon to give up their arms.

In the meanwhile the progress of the Austrians has disappointed the expectations their menaces excited. They threatened energetically, but their action is languid. Delay seems to have been occasioned partly by heavy falls of rain, which inundated the flat basin, over which their operations lay, and partly by the speed with which the French troops had anticipated their march, and thus frustrated their plans. French troops had landed at Genoa and were gathering at Susa, and some had even entered Turin by the time the Austrians had crossed the Ticino.

The want of full and authentic intelligence renders it extremely difficult to trace the movements of the troops at either side with accuracy. But although the details are obscure and simultaneously contradictory, it seems pretty certain that the French and Sardinians have had ample time to strengthen their line of defence along the right bank of the Po, and that the Austrians have not yet been able to cross the river in force, or to shake the position of the Allies. They succeeded in making the passage of the Po in one place, having vainly attempted it in others, and they opened a cannonade which is said to have lasted fifteen hours; but from these incidents they derived no final advantage, but suffering on the contrary a heavy loss, and being compelled, either by the nature of the ground or by the necessity of altering their mode of attack, to re-cross to the left bank. The summary of the whole seems to be this—that while the Austrians are maneuvering, apparently to no purpose, on the left bank of the Po, which may be loosely described as marking the line of the Allies, the French are collecting their strength in reinforcements. Both are getting out on the Alps, and throwing up defences along the entire route. There is some reason, however, to suspect that the Austrians have entirely altered their plans, and that in retreating from the lines of operation, which they originally seem to have marked out where they thought the valley were for diverging in the direction of Alexandria. They have relinquished these fresh designs only to secure a strong position on the line of the Sesia. This supposition is founded on the inexplicable disappearance of the troops that landed at Intra and Palanica, in the north, and who are supposed to have collected for the purpose of the Alps for the purpose of commanding the head of the Sesia on the right wing of their position, which would obviously give them a vast strategic advantage.

Such, as far as we can gather from very imperfect information, is the present position of the two armies. Our readers must not look for such full details concerning this war as we have been enabled to give them throughout the campaigns in India and the Crimea, for the Governments on both sides have strictly prohibited newspaper correspondents in the camp. We shall, nevertheless, have it frequently in our power, through private channels, to supply authentic particulars.

In a royal proclamation, published in the Gazette of May 18th, Her Majesty makes known for the guidance of her subjects, the line of conduct which she has determined to observe towards the three European Powers now contending in arms. The Queen declares that they and their people are all alike her friends, and that her Majesty is resolved to continue peaceful and amicable intercourse with them all. The declaration of British neutrality made in the proclamation is complete and explicit. Her Majesty declares that, being desirous of preserving to her subjects the blessings of peace, which they now happily enjoy, she is firmly purposed and determined to abstain altogether from taking any part, directly or indirectly, in the war now unhappily existing between the said Sovereigns, their subjects, and territories, and to remain at peace with, and to maintain a peaceful and friendly intercourse with all and with

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